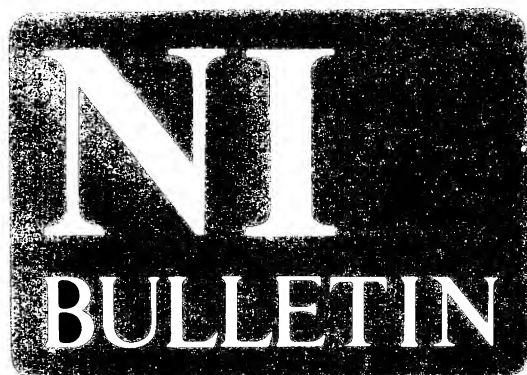


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INSIDE N.I.

MEMBERSHIP CHAIRMAN'S REPORT

September 2003 Applications for Membership: The following persons have applied for membership. If no written objections are received by November 1, 2003, their membership will become effective on that date.

2651-MT Harold E. Tiemann, P. O. Box 248, Yorktown, TX 78164-0248

2652-MT Charles Maccini
(South America 1813-1860)

2653-MT Douglas Wallace, 11104 SW 139 Ct., Miami, FL 33186



LIBRARIAN'S REPORT

I. The following material is new to the Library:

Thomas A. Schillinger

VC53.WebC:1987:AA

WEBER, CHRISTOPHER

The Austrian advantage. Confidential banking in the world's low profile financial haven.

Pub. 1987, 168pp, not illus.

JG98.HahW:1971:TMBHK

HAHN, WOLFGANG R.O.

*Typenkatalog der munzen der bayerischen Herzoge und Kurfursten
1506-1805.*

Pub. 1971, 80pp, w/plates

JG98.KelH:1957:MFRN

KELLNER, HANS-JORG

*Die munzen der freien Reichsstadt Nurnberg. Bayerische
munzkataloge, Band 1.*

Pub. 1957, 169pp, illus.

JA63.ScHa:1975:EGCCB

SCHLUMBERGER, HANS

European gold coins guide book.

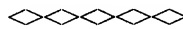
Pub. 1975, 491pp, illus.

II. In addition to the above we would also like to thank Thomas Schillinger for his donation of additional numismatic material to the Library. These included among other items, auction catalogs, and bound periodicals.

III. Robert Forrest has sent in Juan José Moreno y Casanova's "Los Monedas en los archivos: el caso de la asociacion para la Ensenanza de la Mujer.

IV. We have also received from the Federal Reserve Bank of Minneapolis their Fall 2002 Quarterly Review that included articles by the late Bruce D. Smith. "Money and Inflation in Colonial Massachusetts" and "The relationship between money and prices: Some historical evidence reconsidered".

Granvyl G. Hulse, Jr., Book Librarian
James D. Haley, Periodical Librarian



NI RECEIVES AWARD AT AMERICAN NUMISMATIC ASSOCIATION CONVENTION.

At the recent annual convention of the American Numismatic Association in Baltimore, Maryland, the *NI Bulletin* was recognized as being awarded 3rd place in the Specialty Club category of the ANA's 2003 Outstanding Club Publications Contest.

Accepting the award for NI was Howard A. Daniel III, Moderator for NI Educational Programs, who also conducted a program for NI at the convention.

MORE ON QANDAHAR COPPERS AND THE AFGHAN BRITISH CROWN

David Spencer Smith, Miami, Florida, NI #LM-92

This short note extends an article in *NI Bulletin* (Smith, 1998) on the copper *fulus* issued for Qandahar in 1879 (1296 AH), bearing a British crown within a wreath on the reverse. In the *Standard Catalog* (Krause and Mishler, 1996) this coin is listed as KM-94. A second coin (KM-101) is somewhat similar in design, and was regarded as perhaps a second product associated with the British occupation of Qandahar during the Second Afghan War of 1878 to 1881. It is now suggested that this attribution to KM-101 needs to be modified.



Fig. 1. Afghan Qandahar *fulus* of 1294 AH.

Krause and Mishler (1996) propose that a *fulus* of 1289 AH (KM-89) “. . . evidently served as the prototype for the British occupation issue of AH 1296”. This coin was illustrated in Smith (1998) but an equally good candidate (KM-90) is shown here (Fig. 1). This specimen is dated (12)94 on the obverse, as was that shown by Valentine (1911; p.180, #82). However, leaves and flowers commonly appeared on Afghan copper coins of several mints, and the need for a “prototype” is not compelling: engraving possibilities on a small flan are limited, and as Pridmore (1976) suggests, the crown could well have been copied from a regimental button.

The *Catalog* gives the date of KM-101 as 1296 AH, although the illustration bears the numeral “8” on the obverse, and the specimen shown in the *NI Bulletin* article had both “3” and “8”. In that article it was suggested that the “3” might be an error for “2” on a coin produced in 1298, covering the last months of the British occupation of Qandahar, ending on 18th April 1881. It was noted that date errors are very common in these crude copper coins.

The dates (or absence thereof) have for long been a problem with these coins. The first illustration of the Qandahar “Crown *fulus*” (Valentine, 1911; p.177, #55) bore only the numeral “6” and the coin was grouped with other issues dating around the time of the First Afghan War of 1839 to 1842: on that basis the coin could have been minted in *Hijra* (125)6: March 5, 1840 – 22 February, 1841. The author is grateful to NI member Peter R. Thompson for drawing to his attention an article by William Barrett (1971) which attributed this coin to the First Afghan War, also to an article by Pridmore (1976), who cited another reference (Thurston, 1890) attributing the coin to Bombay!

Major Pridmore described a specimen with the date 129(x) which, coupled with the “6” on other specimens (including that in Smith, 1998) gave 1296 AH as a reliable full date – consistent with the 8th January 1879 occupation of Qandahar by British

forces in the Second Afghan War. There can be no doubt that this is the accurate (and apparently the only) date: several more fully dated specimens have appeared in recent years. Pridmore argued that the “Crown *fulus*” is an indigenous Afghan coin, produced by direction of Sher Ali Khan, *Sirdar* of Qandahar, as a self-serving compliment to his enforced British “guests”. Smith (1998) proposed that the *fulus* was probably sanctioned or directed by the British, since it seems unlikely that the imperial crown, representing a foreign occupying force, would have been placed on any Qandahar coin voluntarily, without approval, if not pressure from the occupiers – a view that the author continues to hold.



Fig. 2. *Fulus* of Qandahar: the date 130(x) is at 12:00 o’clock on the obverse and shown further enlarged above the coin. Note the “plant and flower” design on the reverse.

This still leaves KM-101 unresolved. It seems certain that the design was adapted from the British crown: apart from the general similarity between the two, the edges of the crown are outlined in dots (jewels?), and these dots also outline the “leaves” of the plant in KM-101. It was suggested (Smith, 1998) that the reverse device might be a post-British occupation issue with the “ . . . crown subtly transformed into a plant, with the cross becoming a flower.” We now have some evidence that this was indeed the case. Figure 2 shows another example of “KM-101” overstruck on an unusually large (and unidentified) coin. The obverse is well off-center but shows the date 130(x); even if the full date was 1300 AH, this would correspond to November 1882 – November 1883, or at least eighteen months after the British left Qandahar in April 1881. It now seems more likely that the date on the coin illustrated in the earlier *NI Bulletin* article was not an error, but the partial date of (1)3(0)8. The case will be made fully if any specimens dated from 1301 AH through 1307 AH come to light.

The new example further suggests that the crown became a plant or group of leaves and the cross on the “Crown *fulus*” became a flower, and that production of KM-101 may have continued for over a decade after the end of the Second Afghan War. It now seems likely that this issue extended at least until 1308 (August 17, 1890 – August 6, 1891). Why this *fulus* survived, with at least some annual redating we can only guess. Perhaps the pleasure felt by the citizens of Qandahar in seeing the end of British occupation lasted for years! There may well be a lesson here to be learned by

the “Coalition” forces who invaded Iraq. The “transformed Crown *fulus*” was not the only small copper coin made for Qandahar at this time. Figure 3 shows a *fulus* of 1296 AH, the same year as the coin bearing the crown; this issue includes on the reverse an open six-pointed star and the word “*adil*” (“just”/“weight”). A *fulus* of the following year 1297 AH (Fig. 4) (KM-96; Valentine, 1911, p.181, #91) shows a peacock on a perch.



Fig. 3. Another *fulus* of Qandahar with the same date (1296 AH) as the coin with the British crown.

Fig. 4. Qandahar *fulus* of 1297 AH, the year following the crown *fulus* and that shown in Fig. 3.

Numerous *fulus* coins circulated together in the bazaars of Qandahar in the nineteenth century and before. For the decade following the British occupation of Qandahar, Krause and Mishler lists only a *fulus* dated 1307 (KM-102) and another in 1308 (KM-102A), neither with any similarity to the “Crown *fulus*” or the coin probably derived from it.

It may seem trivial to devote an article to the correct placing of a small Afghan copper coin, struck well over a century ago. However, collectors of the United States of America are excited by minor varieties that seem, to the author, no less trivial. On less well-beaten numismatic paths, a single coin may throw light on a shadowy area. Of course, the next coin to surface may well show that the wrong path was chosen after all!

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- Thurston, E. (1890) *History of the Coinage of the Territories of the East India Company in the Indian Peninsula and Catalogue of Coins in the Madras Museum*, Plate 16, Fig. 7, Madras.
- Valentine, W. H. (1911) *Modern Copper Coins of the Muhammadan States of Turkey, Persia, Egypt, Afghanistan, Morocco, Tripoli, Tunis, etc.* Spink & Son, London. (Reprinted: Spink & Son, 1969, 1977).

OUR LADY OF ALTÖTTING

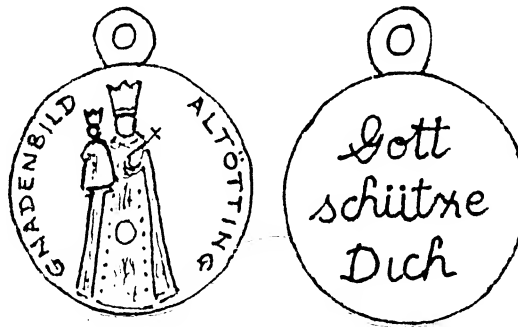
Bob Forrest, Manchester, England, NI #2382

In the early Christian era the area around Altötting in Upper Bavaria, some 60 miles east of Munich, was occupied by the pagan Marcomanni tribe, whose chief, Otto, is said to have been converted to Christianity by St. Rupert in about AD 700 (1). The chief's baptism allegedly took place on the site of a heathen temple which was subsequently converted into a seven-sided chapel (2) and to which St. Rupert himself gave the statue of the Virgin and Child later known as Our Lady of Altötting.

Divine intervention, it is said, spared the sanctuary and its statue from the ravages of Hungarian invasion, the Thirty Years War, the Black Death, the campaigns of Napoleon, and both the First and Second World Wars. Divine intervention, however, did not prevent the puzzling loss of St. Rupert's original statue somewhere along the way, and the present statue is a 13th century replacement.

By the end of the 15th century the number of pilgrims necessitated some enlargement of the shrine, and to that end one of the seven sides of the ancient chapel was removed so that a church could be added to it whose congregation could, as it were, look directly into the old shrine and its statue.

The statue, made of wood and some 26 inches tall, depicts the Virgin standing with the Infant Jesus perched on her right arm. Curiously, the Virgin has an overly large head and the Infant Jesus an overly large right hand, but such details are explained by the faithful as symbolic distortions rather than inept sculpting. (The Virgin's head was made larger to allow more scope for her facial expression of love and tenderness; the Infant's right hand was made larger to symbolise the wealth of blessings it bestows.....)



The modern white metal medal shown here twice actual size shows the image robed and crowned, with the legend GNADENBILD ALTÖTTING (= Image of Mercies, Altötting.) The reverse legend is a standard one shared by many modern German religious medals. It reads GOTT SCHÜTZE DICH (= God protect you.)

Notes.

1. See Joan Carroll Cruz, *Miraculous Images of Our Lady* (1993), p.115-119 and H.M.Gillett, *Famous Shrines of Our Lady* (1952), vol.2, p.131-146. Both give photos of the statue, the former showing it robed and unrobed; with and without a sceptre in the Virgin's left hand.
2. On the incorporation of pagan sites into Christian monuments, see "Cocktails" in *NI Bulletin*, June 1998, p.157ff. The 7-sided chapel is said by both Cruz (p.115) and Gillett (p.132) "probably" to reflect an earlier "pagan cultus of the seven planets", but such things are highly debatable – see "Of Hexagrams and Pentagrams II" in *NI Bulletin*, May 2001, p.121ff, particularly p.123.

SOMALILAND AND THE 1 SHILLING COIN

Paul Baker, NI #2615

“The Republic of Somaliland” was declared on May 18th 1991, when the part of Somalia that had once been a protectorate of Great Britain declared itself to be a sovereign and independent nation. To this day Somaliland’s independence remains unrecognised by the international community.

The only coin to be issued for circulation in the name of Somaliland is the 1 Somaliland Shilling type of 1994. This coin was issued around October 1994 when the Bank of Somaliland also formally introduced a series of paper money in denominations 5, 10, 20, 50, 100 and 500 Somaliland Shillings. The unit of currency of the Republic of Somaliland, i.e. the Somaliland Shilling, is a lasting sign of the British influence on this region. Let us take a look at the history of Somaliland and the Shilling, more particularly the history of Somaliland and the 1 Shilling coin.

For many years the British India Rupee had been used in the protectorate of British Somaliland. Then in August 1940 (almost a year into the Second World War) the Italians took the region from British control and incorporated it into Italian East Africa (known to the Italians as “Africa Orientale Italiana”), which would soon comprise Italian Somaliland, Ethiopia, Eritrea and what had since 1888 and until then been British Somaliland. Italian East Africa’s currency was the (Africa Orientale Italiana) Lira. By February 1941 Italian supremacy in the region came to an end following the efforts of the British and their allies from the south of this region.

At this time the British commenced the introduction of the coins and paper money of the East African Currency Board (EACB) to the four territories they had taken from Italian control. The EACB coinage comprised pieces of 1, 5, 10, 50 Cents (Half Shilling) and 1 Shilling and was already in use in British controlled Kenya, Uganda, Tanganyika and Zanzibar. This extension to the use of the EACB coinage and paper money had varying success in the different territories and for various reasons. The level of success of the introduction of the EACB monies to British Somaliland was such that in 1948 (the year in which the military administration of British Somaliland ended) both East African Shillings and Indian Rupees were in use (Source – World History at KMLA, page entitled History of Somaliland, on the internet at www.stabi.hs-bremerhaven.de/whkmla/region/eastafrica/somaliland193960.html). It was during 1951 that the Indian Rupee was finally phased out of use in the protectorate.

All three East African 1 Shilling types will have seen use in British Somaliland. All three types had in common their reverse design, which was the work of George William De Saulles (Source – *Catalogue of Coin Designers and Engravers* 1984, by Zdenek Vesely). This design has, as one of its main features, a rather life-like lion. About every other lion to appear on world coinage at the time was at least a little heraldic, appearing in a shield or coat of arms. Behind the lion and adding to the realism of the design, there is a distant view of Mount Kilimanjaro, Africa’s highest peak. Arching over the lion/mountain scene is a stylized flower and above this the



The obverses of the three East Africa 1 Shilling coin types and the common reverse, all used in British Somaliland.

words "EAST AFRICA". Below the central scene is the denomination numeral "1", below that the word "SHILLING" and below that the date. Pieces made by mints other than the Royal Mint, London include a mint mark located in the ground at the lion's feet, directly above the denomination numeral "1". The mint marks are any one of the following four: "H" (The Mint, Birmingham Ltd., Birmingham, England), "I" (the Bombay Branch of the Royal Mint, Bombay, India), "KN" (The mint of ICI Metals Division, Witton, near Birmingham, England) and "SA" (The South African Mint, Pretoria, South Africa). The mountain/lion design also appeared on the paper money of the EACB from the 1933 series to the 1953 series inclusive.

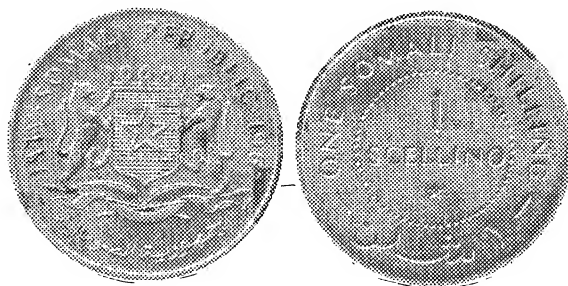
The distinction between the three types of East Africa 1 Shilling is the obverse design. The first type shows a portrait of George V (that by Sir Edgar Bertram Mackennal, as per the "BM" in relief on the truncation to the right) around which is the legend "GEORGIVS V REX ET IND: IMP:". The second type shows a crowned portrait of George VI (with small designer's initials "PM" for Percy Metcalfe, below the truncation) surrounded by the unabbreviated legend "GEORGIVS VI REX ET INDIAE IMPERATOR :". The third type has the same portrait of George V with the shorter legend "GEORGIVS SEXTVS REX". One Shilling coins of the first two types contained 25 per cent Silver by weight, those of the third type were of Copper-Nickel (Cu75/Ni25).

The very same lion/mountain scene and fairly similar legends were also used on the 50 Cents / Half Shilling coins of East Africa. This denomination too came in one type during the reign of George V and two types during the reign of George VI. However in contrast to the issues of 1 Shilling coins, many millions of the East Africa 50 Cents / Half Shilling coins were issued with the portrait of Queen Elizabeth II (seven dates ranging from 1954 through to 1963). Further to this the book *The Numismatic History of the Birmingham Mint* by James O. Sweeny (1981), mentions that the approximately 8 million 1952 "H" 1 Shilling pieces struck by that mint were

made, with date 1952 and the second George VI obverse, during 1953, 1954 and 1955. It would seem quite possible that some of the 1952 dated (Royal Mint, London) and 1952 “KN” dated pieces will also have been made in years after 1952.

I came across a clue as to why no East Africa 1 Shilling coins were made after those of the “1952” order and with date 1952. This clue came in the form of the title of an archive record that is held in the Kenya National Archives. (Found through their site at <http://www.kenyarchives.go.ke>). Kenya’s capital Nairobi was home to the headquarters of the EACB and the named place of issue on the EACB paper money. The Kenya National Archives include an important archive of EACB documents and one set of documents is archived under the title “Proposed new alloy for 1/- and 50 cent coins, reduction of the nickel content of East African and West African coins” and is said to be from 1951 to 1953. The documents themselves are not on-line, so the easiest thing to do is to see what sense can be made out of the title. The West African coins referred to will be the “British West Africa” coinage, also issued by a currency board and comprising 1/10 Penny, 1/2 Penny, 1 Penny, 3 Pence, 6 Pence, 1 Shilling and 2 Shillings. So the documents must discuss a proposed new alloy for the East African 50 Cents and 1 Shilling, which since 1948 had both been of Cu75/Ni25. Other document titles give mention of discussion of a need, at the time, to reduce the Nickel content of both the East Africa coins and those of British West Africa. At the time the main Nickel usage in the British West Africa coins was in the 1/10, 1/2 and 1 Penny coins for which Bronze was used commencing with the 1952 dated issue. The only Nickel usage in the East Africa coins was in 50 Cents and the 1 Shilling. The content of these coins never did see further change, it seems they settled for just doing without further orders of the 1 Shilling coins.

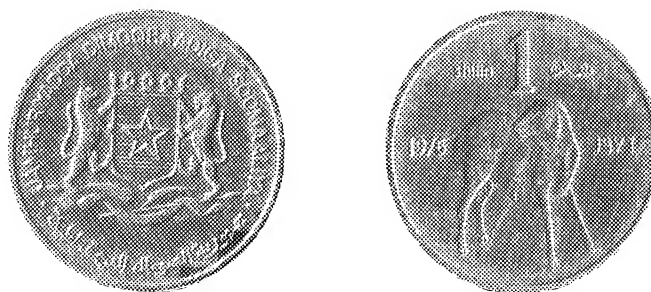
Somaliland gained its independence from the British on June 26th 1960, it joined Somalia (which had once been Italian Somaliland) on July 1st 1960 to form the Somali Republic. As a result of this, Somaliland left the East African Currency Board region. For a few years the Somali Scellino (Somali Shilling), the currency unit of the Somali Republic, remained at the same Gold parity as that used for the East African Shilling and the Somalo (that had been the currency unit of Somalia). The Somali Republic’s first paper money was issued in 1962 but coins were not issued at that time. So for the time being the new republic will assumably have allowed its people to continue to use the coinages they had used prior to independence. These coins were the 1950 dated coins of Somalia (1, 5, 10 and 50 Centesimi and 1 Somalo) and the EACB coins. The very last of the EACB coins were the 5 and 10 Cent coins dated 1964. For these Royal titles were omitted, signifying that these were used in EACB member countries that were newly independent.



The 1967 1 Scellino of the Somali Republic

Former EACB members Kenya, Tanzania and Uganda each issued their first coinages in 1966 and each of these new series of coins included a 1 Shilling coin. The Somali Republic soon followed this lead by introducing a 1967 dated series of coins comprising 5, 10, 50 Centesimi/Cents and 1 Scellino/Shilling. Both English and Italian spellings of these currency units appeared on the coins. The 1967 1 Scellino was of similar size to its predecessors the East African 1 Shilling and the 1 Somalo of Somalia. All four pieces in the 1967 series had on their obverse the coat of arms of the Somali Republic with the words “SOMALI REPUBLIC” above and the same but in Arabic script below. The date also appears on the obverse, to the left in Arabic numerals and to the right in western numerals. Typical of the whole series, the 1 Scellino has a reverse comprising “1 SCELLINO” above a small 5-pointed star, centrally, within a large circle of small dots. Over the top of the circle of dots are the words “ONE SOMALI SHILLING” and below it the denomination appears in Arabic script.

It is mentioned in *The Numismatic History of the Birmingham Mint*, that the Birmingham Mint made the whole of the 10 Centesimi issue of this 1967 series over the years 1967 and 1968. The book also makes mention that the designer of this type and hence the other 3 types in this series, was Michael Rizzelo. Other works by this designer include the 1966 dated Gambian coins, the 1964 dated Sierra Leone circulation series and, a little “nearer home”, the Great Britain 2 Pounds 1995 for the fiftieth anniversary of the United Nations.



The 1976 1 Shilin reverse (right) and obverse of the 1984 piece (left)

As a consequence of various political changes, the country’s title had been changed to “Somali Democratic Republic” by the time of the next coinage issue. This series, first released with the date 1976, was led by a 1 Shilin denomination, “Shilin” being the Somali word for “Shilling”. The coat of arms on the obverse remained unchanged from the 1967 series, but the legend above was no longer in English, it was instead in Somali and read “JAMHURIYADDA DIMOQRAADIGA SOOMAALIYA” reflecting the country’s new title, which also appeared, in Arabic, below the coat of arms. The reverse of the 1976 1 Shilin shows a lamb with a “1” above, the “1” being preceded by the word “shilin” and followed by the Arabic word for Shilling written in Arabic script, to each side of the lamb is the date, in western numerals (to the left) and in Arabic numerals (to the right). The two Copper-Nickel pieces of the 1976 series (the 1 Shilin and the smaller 50 Senti) were the only types to make any reappearance. Pieces of these two denominations, dated 1984, were issued with unchanged designs, though struck in Nickel-Plated-Steel, which would have decreased raw material costs for coinage production.

This brings us to the latest 1 Shilling coins for use in Somaliland. As mentioned earlier, the region that was once British Somaliland declared itself “The Republic of Somaliland” in 1991 and new coinage and paper money was introduced around October 1994. The only coin of this issue though was the 1994 dated 1 Shilling.



The 1994 1 Shilling of The Republic of Somaliland

The Somaliland Pigeon (*Columba oliviae*) is the main feature of the obverse of the 1994 1 Shilling, with “REPUBLIC OF SOMALILAND” above and the date “1994” below. To the right of the date there can be found the mint mark “PM”, for the Pobjoy Mint. The simple reverse design comprises of a large central “1/-”, with “BAANKA SOMALILAND” above and around this and “ONE SOMALILAND SHILLING” below and around. There is obvious practicality in this design – an easy to see and easy to understand design element, central to the reverse, being used to signify the value of the coin. The Pobjoy Mint recently informed me that they were provided with the obverse and reverse designs for this coin type by the Republic of Somaliland.

These 1 Shilling coins are of Aluminium, have a mass of 1.0 gram and a 21.0 mm diameter. The only other Aluminium coins made by the Pobjoy Mint were also made for use in Africa. These coins were the slightly smaller Burundi 1 Franc coins dated 1990 and 1993.

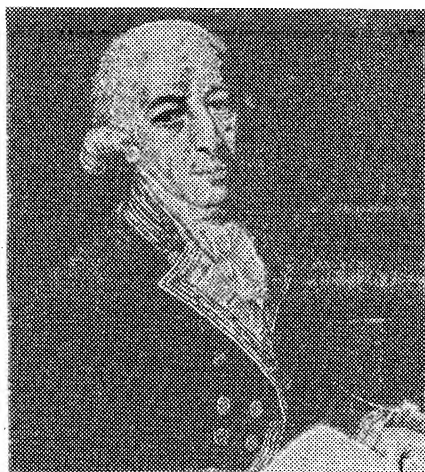
I got my example of the 1994 1 Shilling on June 12th 1996. It is an uncirculated piece, the same grade in which they always seem to be offered in dealer’s lists, internet auctions etc. Only recently did I hear of an example in a grade anything more than a touch below Uncirculated. This example I know of, in a friend’s collection, has definitely seen real circulation and it was acquired following a trip to Somaliland by a friend of the present owner. So doubt no longer this is a circulation type!

THE AUSTRALIAN PROCLAMATION and our first coins

Brian Ahearn, Canowindra NSW, Australia

(Reprinted from the Australasian Coin & Banknote Magazine, 2000 Year Book.)

On 13 May 1787 Captain Arthur Phillip, who had been appointed to command the first expedition of convicts sent to New South Wales, sailed from Spithead, England.



Captain Arthur Phillip

To protect the expedition of convicts was *HMS Sirius* commanded by Phillip in person. This vessel originally named *Berwick* was built on the Thames in 1781. She was classed as sixth-rate, and was armed with six coronades and four 6 pounders mounted. Ten 6 pounders, with iron work for building the gun carriages carried in her hold. Her burden was 520 tons, her dimensions about 100 feet by 32 feet with 12 feet depth of hold.

The other ships in the expedition were *Supply*, an armed tender, 6 transports and 3 store ships.

The convicts were the wretched human cargo existing in the rotting hulks laying off the shores of England. These dilapidated gaols were overflowing with thousands who were convicted of, what seems in today's terms, petty crimes. There seemed to be no end to the continuous stream of poor and disadvantaged entering the gaols of England.

Hanging was no deterrent. There were over two hundred offences which resulted in a hanging verdict. Many of the poor saw hanging preferable to starving in a rat-like, savage society.

Most of the convicts were gaoled for social crimes. A woman who tried to pass a bad shilling was strangled and burnt, a young mother who stole a piece of course linen for her starving naked children was hanged.

In 1815 a private members bill abolishing the death penalty for stealing, more than five shillings was passed. It was defeated in the House of Lords.

Creative government officials put a proposal forward to sell convicts to the slave markets of Morocco, or have slavers transport them to the fever coast of Africa where the death rate was known to be high.

Finally, it was decided to experiment by sending a large group to Britain's furthest possession, New South Wales.

It was calculated that each convict in the hulks cost twenty six pounds, fifteen and eleven pence each year. A convict could be transported the ten thousand miles for less than twenty pounds. Mr. Sidney and Mr. Pitt, the people responsible, saw no reason for a new colony, it was just a way of solving a troublesome problem.

These filthy, verminous prisoners, groaning in their chains were to be the in-mates in the new penal colony of Australia. Many of the convicts were old, pregnant or suffering from disease, and despite their swollen bodies and inflamed legs saw the deportation as a relief from the hulks where many had not put a foot on land for years.

On 25 November, Phillip changed his pennant to the *Supply*, leaving John Hunter, the second Captain, in charge of seven ships. Phillip in the *Supply* and three other ships went on ahead to make preparations for their arrival in Sydney.

The First Fleet, using Captain Cook's charts, landed at his old anchorage at Botany Bay on 18 January 1788. The voyage had taken over eight months. Phillip considered the land at Botany Bay to be barren and with little water, therefore unsuitable to support the enterprise. He sent at once his sloop *Supply* to investigate the other harbour discovered, but not entered by Cook, Port Jackson.

Upon receiving a highly favourable report, Phillip prepared to move the fleet to its new home without delay.

As the fleet was putting out to sea two ships were reported sailing into the Bay. It was the French explorer La Pérouse who was investigating whaling prospects in the Pacific. The meeting with La Pérouse posed no threat to the expedition or territorial claim. Courtesys were exchanged, then Phillip set sail with the Fleet to Port Jackson.

The Fleet passed through the heads into the calm waters of the harbour. A small, quiet, sheltered cove with a stream of fresh running water was selected. On 7 February Phillip held a parade for the formal taking over of the new colony which he named Sydney Cove. The colony of New South Wales was now established and Phillip could reflect on bringing the First Fleet to the settlement without a major mishap, and on the huge task before him.

Not surprisingly, early food harvests were complete failures and the colonists were forced to rely on the stores imported from England.

Disaster struck when the only surviving supply ship *Sirius* was wrecked off Norfolk Island in March 1790. The colony was now threatened with starvation.

On 3 June 1790 *HMS Lady Juliana* arrived with some supplies. It was the first exclusively female convict transport. The only welcoming news was of a Second Fleet being prepared to sail to the settlements rescue with flour, salt meat and much needed cloth.

In January 1791 the first contingent of the Rum Corps arrived, and instantly fraternised with the more hardened criminals amongst the convicts. They imported

rum, had the first choice of women and were the first to board and harass any vessel entering the port, often buying up the whole cargo. The colony developed into a military state where a half gallon of rum would buy an acre of wheat crop. Nearly all authority was vested in the Rum Corps.

By now Phillip became convinced that the new colony could not progress using convicts and needed free settlers. He planned to grant land to ex-convicts and officers. Convicts would be assigned to the free settlers to work the farms and build roads.

As time went by Phillip became fatigued, sick from a chronic pain in the stomach and worn out from having to endure a constant battle with the Rum Corps. He finally sent a request to London for home leave. Phillip left in 1792 knowing he had forged an infant colony out of an alien environment and executed his duties in a way which gained the respect of all in the settlement.

He also left the infamous Rum Corps free to rule without a Governor for three years.

Captain John Hunter, a former colleague of Governor Phillip, came to the Colony as second Governor in September 1795. His first act was to restore civil power. From then on it was 'war' between the Corps and the Governors.

All trade in the Colony was based on rum, land was bartered for rum as was food and the favours of women. The Corps even commandeered the much needed crops to be processed in their very own distillery.

Hunter was frustrated at every level in his efforts at reform. Officers and the Corps worked secretly behind his back to bring about his downfall. However, many discoveries took place at this time which reduced the fear of famine. The descendants of the original cattle of 1788 were found only forty miles from Sydney on quality grazing land. That land still retains its name of 'Cow Pastures'.

Lieutenant John Shortland discovered a great river, with coal at its mouth, north of Sydney and named it after Governor Hunter.

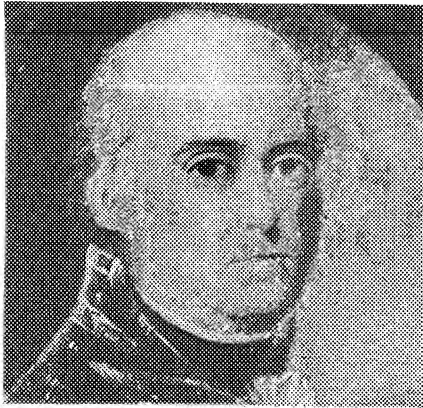
George Bass and Mathew Flinders carried out their historical coastal survey in the *Tom Thumb* opening up more opportunities for exploration and settlement.

Meanwhile Governor Hunter's enemies had succeeded in blackening his name in London. The bad news from Whitehall, of his recall, was in an official letter carried by Philip Gidley King.

Hunter left a disappointed and bitter man, knowing he was blamed for many things out of his control. He was further soured by the eagerness of his former shipmate to take over his position. Philip Gidley King was now the third Governor of New South Wales.

King acknowledged that there were only two classes, 'those who sold rum and those who drank it'. When rum could not be imported it was smuggled in by the Rum Corps.

The sale and bartering of rum became the scandal of the colony. Even the head gaoler became involved, converting the gaol into a sly grog-shop, selling rum to the public for his own personal gain. Drunken Magistrates lay over the benches sentencing men to gaol for being drunk.



Governor Philip Gidley King

King, in the hope of containing and then breaking the power of the Rum Corps, allowed ex convicts leave to sell rum. It was not long before they started to compete with military officers in trading.

The Corps ran a campaign of ugly rumours about King, and these venomous stories spread all the way to England. King was recalled to explain and justify his actions. Regaining the confidence of London officials he returned to Sydney, having positioned the Rum Corps as a powerful threat to the Colony's future.

However, an even larger problem was threatening the prosperity of the Colony. The lack of uniform coinage and what to do with the various foreign coins being used for trading.

King, like his predecessors, ran into problems because there was no legal specie in the Colony. Coinage was almost non-existent and merchants were utilizing dubious promissory notes to complete transactions.

With most of the coinage arriving in the pockets of the merchants and crews of visiting ships problems arose about values. It was common practice to trade based on the weight of a coin, this was especially true with gold and silver coins. Most coins came from the major trading nations of the time – Britain, Spain, The Netherlands, Portugal and India. These traders insisted on payment in a commodity that could be traded outside the Colony.

This situation, and with the Corps hoarding whatever coins they could lay their hands on, left a problem that King could no longer ignore.

King decided to seek help from London in the form of a shipment of copper pennies. He cited the case of the Superintendent of Convicts on Norfolk Island, Martin Timms. Timms never received his pay from July 1793 to January 1801, the government owed him £368.13s.4d. This situation put pressure on officials to remain loyal and honest. To add to the drain of the economy it was announced that Governor Phillip's yearly pension of £613.13s.10 1/2d was to come from the revenue of New South Wales.

Regulating the Colony's confused and chaotic economy based on illegal promissory notes and rum presented a huge task.

Previous requests for coins had been ignored. Britain was also experiencing a shortage of coinage and was allowing all forms of trading, counter marked coins, tradesman tokens, bank tokens and other nations currencies. It was also using Spanish dollars with King George III's head punched into the coin.

On 19 November 1800 Governor King issued a proclamation to regulate the value of coins circulating in the Colony of New South Wales.

The proclamation was prompted by the arrival from London of *HMS Porpoise* with a cargo of 132,000 copper pennies produced by the Soho Mint in Birmingham. So prepared was King that he announced the Proclamation of coins on the very day the *Porpoise* arrived.

These copper pennies, nicknamed 'cartwheels', were included on the list of specie at a value of twopence. The coins were also used as a weight measure as each coin weighed one ounce.

The monetary proclamation was in place to ensure coins would remain in the Colony and so stabilise the failing economy. With more coins in circulation there would be less reliance on promissory notes and bartering.

The proclamation would also place a legal value on the coinage being used by visiting merchants who often refused to deal in dubious promissory notes. There were of course many other coins circulating in the Colony which were not listed on the proclamation, including the British twopence (1797), halfpenny (1799) and farthing (1760-1820). Other nation's coins such as the Portuguese Joannes V \$12,800 (8 escudos), were also in circulation.

Eleven coins were listed on the proclamation, three from Britain, two from The Netherlands, one Spanish, two from Portugal and three from India. Each coin was given a higher local value than their intrinsic value and so ensuring trade would be stabilized and sufficient coins were available to merchants and citizens.

Proclamation.

19th November. The currency.

Whereas representations of the want of small money experienced here have induced His Majesty to take into His gracious consideration the immediate relief from this great inconvenience to all classes of his subjects in this Colony, the quantity of Copper Coin has been received in His Majesty's armed vessel Porpoise, and will be circulated by being paid for grain and animal food supplied His Majesty's stores.

These are therefore to give notice that a Copper Coin, weighing one English ounce, and stamped with the Profile of His Majesty on the one side, and of Britannia on the other, will be issued as above at the rate of Two pence for each Copper; and that the same shall pass

Current in the Colony, and is to circulate at the aforesaid rate of Twopence.

And that no one may plead ignorance of the rate or legality of this or any other of the coins circulating in this Colony, of which it does not appear that any regular proclamation has ever collectively been issued, I have judged it most expedient herewith to publish the following table of all the specie legally circulating in this Colony with the rate affixed to each at which they shall be considered and be legal tender in all payments or transactions in this Colony.

	£	s.	d.
<i>A guinea</i>	1	2	0
<i>A half-Johanna</i>	2	0	0
<i>A gold mohur</i>	1	17	6
<i>A Spanish dollar</i>	0	5	0
<i>A Johanna</i>	4	0	0
<i>A ducat</i>	0	9	6
<i>A rupee</i>	0	2	6
<i>A Pagoda</i>	0	8	0
<i>A Dutch gilder</i>	0	2	0
<i>An English shilling</i>	0	1	1
<i>A copper coin of 1 oz</i>	0	0	2

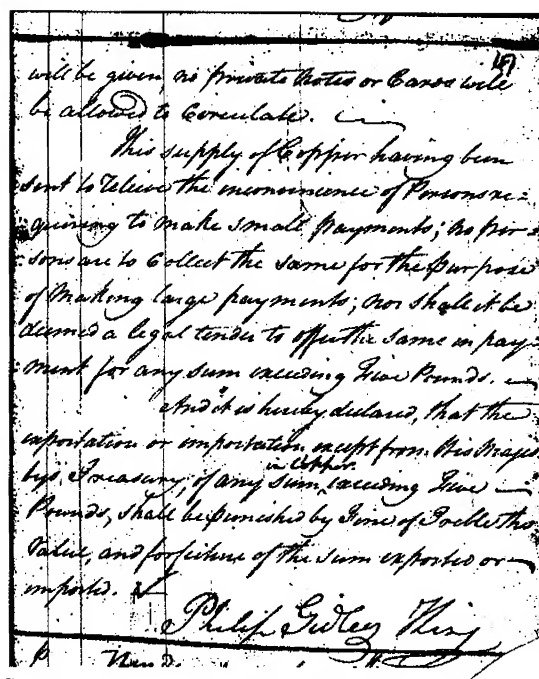
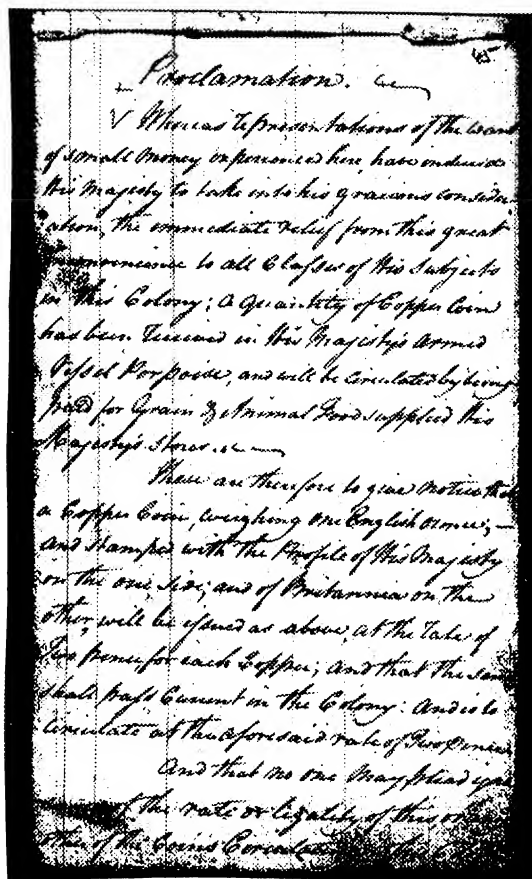
When a sufficient quantity of Copper Coins is received in the Colony, of which notice will be given, no private notes or goods will be allowed to circulate.

This supply of Copper having been sent to relieve the inconvenience of persons requiring to make small payments, no persons are to collect the same for the purpose of making large payments, nor shall it be deemed a legal tender to offer the same in payment for any sum exceeding Five Pounds.

And it is hereby declared that the exportation or importation, except from His Majesty's Treasury, of any sum in copper exceeding Five Pounds, shall be punished by fine of treble the value, and forfeiture of the sum exported or imported.

Given under my hand, at Government House, Sydney, November 19th 1800.

Philip Gidley King

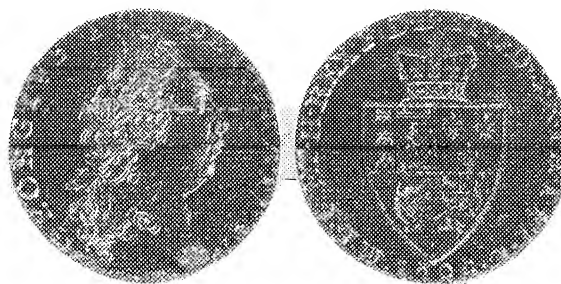


Copy of original proclamation.

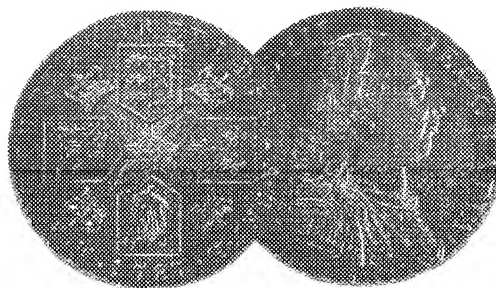
The proclamation set a value of twopence for the one ounce copper penny. The penny had a raised rim, similar to a wheel, hence the name 'cartwheel'. It was struck for only one date, 1797.



One Penny cartwheel
George III 1797



Spade Guinea
George III 1787-1799



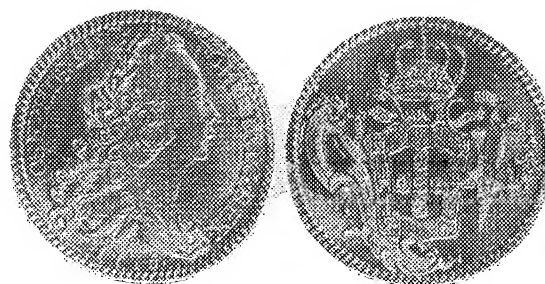
Shilling
George III 1787

Other British coins were the English silver shilling valued at one shilling and one pence, and a gold guinea valued at one pound, two shillings, one shilling above its nominal value. It was struck between 1787 and 1799. It was the fifth head type with spade reverse and weighed 8.35 grams.

The Portuguese coins listed were the gold Johanna – 8 escude (12,800 reis) which weighed 28.68 grams, with a value set at four pounds

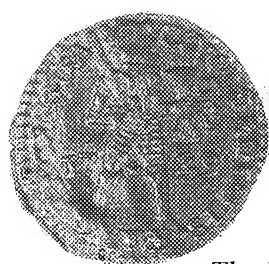


The Johanna
1722-1733



Half Johanna
1722-1800

The half Johanna was valued at two pounds and like all of the Johannas was a gold coin of intricate design being struck between 1722 and 1800. It weighed 14.34 grams.



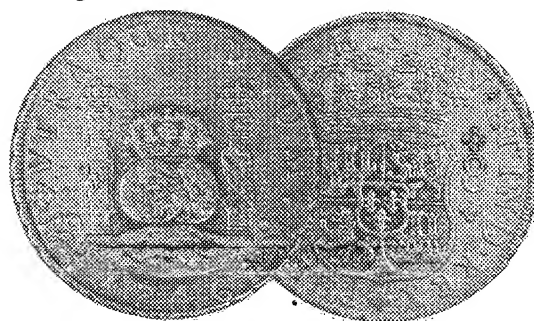
The Ducat
1795-1806



Guilder
1795-1806



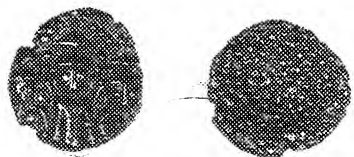
The Netherlands, then one of the world's largest and most influential seafaring traders, had their gold Ducat valued at nine shillings and sixpence, and the silver Dutch guilder at two shillings .



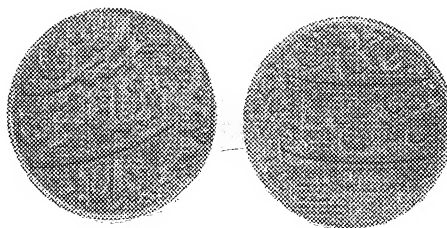
Spanish Dollar
1732-1772

The Spanish silver dollar, one of the most widely used coins amongst international traders, was valued in the proclamation at five shillings. The scroll around the Pillar is contributed to the original dollar sign. Most of the Spanish coins were struck in Mexico, Chile, Bolivia and at the Seville Mint in Spain.

The three Indian coins listed, though small, were heavily traded because of their association with the East India Company.



The Madras Pagoda
1740-1807



The Mohur
1793-1819



Silver Rupee
1793-1818

The button sized Gold star Pagoda received a value of eight shillings. The larger gold Mohur of the Bengal Presidency of the East India Company in Calcutta was valued at one pound, seventeen shillings and sixpence. The Rupee of the East India Company, also widely circulated, was set at two shillings and sixpence.

What went through Governor King's mind when he evaluated the various coinage and set the values we can only speculate. However, the raising of a coin's value was a risk he had to take if the drain on the available coinage was to be slowed.

King was recalled after serving his appointed term. His period as Governor saw the expansion of New South Wales, Van Diemen's Land and the development of sheep breeding and trade.

He received the gratitude of King George III for his 'great improvement of the Colony under his superintendence'.

Philip Gidley King, suffering from severe gout, died in England on 3 September, 1808.

It is two hundred years since the Proclamation of 1800. Collectors will want more than ever to have a complete collection of Australia's first coins.

Note: Coins illustrated are not to size.

THE “KISSIE PENNY”

The so-called Kissie or Gizzie “Penny” is among the best known of primitive monies. In shape it is a long, thin, twisted rod of iron with a flat, hoe-like spatula at one end and a sharpened “T” at the other. They vary in length from under 9” to over 15” with a foot being about the average. Supposedly this odd shape served to protect the metal content of the piece much as the milling protects a round coin.

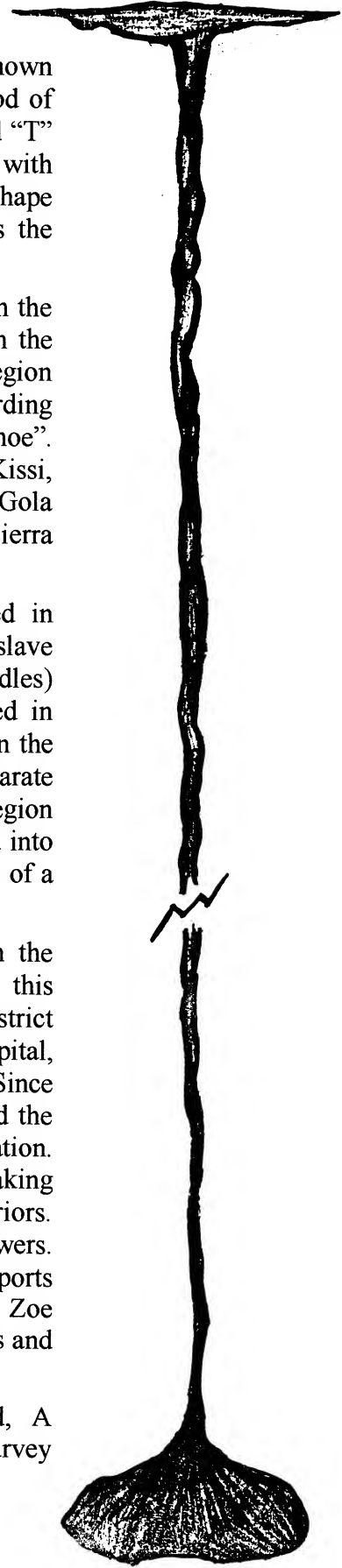
Kissie pennies were “minted” from the early 1880’s through the mid 1930’s by native blacksmiths, using iron smelted from the rich ore in the region. Iron chunks had been traded in the region for centuries, giving way to iron hoes of various sorts; according to Quiggin, the Kissie is often considered a degenerate “hoe”. Various accounts ascribe use of the Kissie penny to the Kissi, Loma, Bandi, Mendi, Kpelle, Mandingo, Gbandia, and Gola tribes and place its use in the border regions of Liberia, Sierra Leone, and Guinea.

Apparently a general-purpose currency, Kissies were tied in bundles of twenty and used for a variety of purchases: a slave (300 bundles), a cow (100 bundles), a virgin bride (200 bundles) – all this circa 1910. By 1936 the Kissies were bundled in sixties, a bundle being worth from 24¢ to 36¢ depending on the market. A rich man found it necessary to construct a separate hut for his Kissies alone, and traders coming into the region complained that a pocketful of silver coins, when converted into local currency, required the services and attendant expenses of a dozen bearers to carry into the hinterland!

British and French coins were used interchangeably with the Kissie, and eventually Western coins began to displace this colorful but awkward money item. In 1937 the District Commissioner at Voinjama, Liberia’s provisional capital, prohibited the use of Kissies in payment of the hut tax. Since 1944 American money has been legal tender in Liberia and the Kissie penny has all but disappeared from active circulation. Today they are used in tribal puberty rite feasts, for the making of protective fetishes and to decorate the graves of old warriors. Many tribesmen believe the old irons to possess magical powers. Gibbs calls the Kissie penny “the soul with a soul” and reports that if a piece were broken, it would be taken to the Zoe (witchdoctor), who, for a fee, would rejoin the broken pieces and reincarnate the escaped soul.

References: “Odd and Curious Money of the World, A Complete Register” by Gibbs & Schulman, pp. 10-11; “A Survey of Primitive Money” by Quiggin, p. 87.

(Published by Scott Semans – Info Sheet 105.)



MEMBER NOTICE PAGE

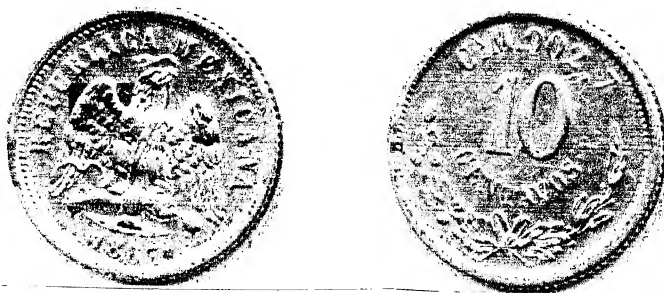
J. William Halfpenny, 8105 Piers Dr., Apt. 1701, Woodridge, IL 60517-5336: I have several 1961 Panama ½ Balboas which I would like to trade for high grade Crowns or ½ Crowns that I need for my collection. These are commercial Uncs, NOT gems. First contact might be easier by email: jcoinman@comcast.net

NEVER STOP LOOKING

Roger deWardt Lane, Hollywood, Florida, NI #815

Most of you know that for over 30 years I have collected small silver coins about dime size. Of the over 3,000 possible date listings, from Queen Victoria to Netherlands Antilles in 1970, which was the last circulating issue in silver, I have over half of the dates (excluding U.S.).

Recently at a local coin show, I added to my collection a new date.



MEXICO, 1887 CaM, Chihuahua Mint, 10 Centavos, 17mm,
.9027 Fine, 2.707 grams, Y-12, Mintage 96,070
Assayer: M = Manual Merino

The Chihuahua mint (pronounced Che-wah-wah) opened in 1831. The first 10 Centavos size coins were not struck by the Chihuahua mint until 1868. Chihuahua is the capital of the State of Chihuahua. It is located 999 miles from Mexico City.

The town of Chihuahua is situated 4,600 feet above sea level and derives its name from the two Indian (tarahumare) words signifying "place of the worship". The region roundabout is celebrated for its enormous output of ores. The Cathedral dates from 1717 and one of the old bells in the tower has a hole that was shot through it by the Republican forces who bombarded the town when it was in possession of the French troops of Maximilian in 1866. My coin is dated just 21 years after this incident with Emperor Maximilian.

So, as I have said many times before, ever since I started collecting these little pieces of history – Each one has a little story to tell. Now fast forward to year 2003 and trace how this coin from Mexico traveled to Florida via the great northwest, where the dealer came from. I wonder how many others of the 96,069 escaped the melting pot.